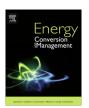
FISEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

# **Energy Conversion and Management**

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/enconman



# Production of brown algae pyrolysis oils for liquid biofuels depending on the chemical pretreatment methods



Joonhyuk Choi <sup>a,b</sup>, Jae-Wook Choi <sup>a</sup>, Dong Jin Suh <sup>a,c,e</sup>, Jeong-Myeong Ha <sup>a,d,e,\*</sup>, Ji Won Hwang <sup>b</sup>, Hyun Wook Jung <sup>b</sup>, Kwan-Young Lee <sup>b,e</sup>, Hee-Chul Woo <sup>f</sup>

- <sup>a</sup> Clean Energy Research Center, Korea Institute of Science and Technology, Seoul 136-791, Republic of Korea
- <sup>b</sup> Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, Korea University, Seoul 136-701, Republic of Korea
- <sup>c</sup> Department of Green Process and System Engineering, Korea University of Science and Technology, Daejeon 305-350, Republic of Korea
- d Department of Clean Energy and Chemical Engineering, Korea University of Science and Technology, Daejeon 305-350, Republic of Korea
- <sup>e</sup> Green School, Korea University, Seoul 136-791, Republic of Korea

#### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history: Received 10 January 2014 Accepted 30 April 2014 Available online 3 June 2014

Keywords: Saccharina japonica Macroalgae Pyrolysis Pretreatment Sulfuric acid

#### ABSTRACT

Based on observations of rapidly growing biochar in fluidization beds, kelp (*Saccharina japonica*), a species of brown algae, was pretreated for the efficient operation of pyrolysis processes to produce pyrolysis oils. The removal of catalytically active inorganic minerals and the softening of polymeric seaweed structures were performed by means of chemical treatments, including a CaCl<sub>2</sub> treatment to isolate valuable and sticky fucoidan and a sulfuric acid treatment to remove catalytically active minerals. The sulfuric acid pretreatment significantly reduced the inorganic elements but did not significantly affect the properties of the pyrolysis oil compared to the non-treated kelp pyrolysis oil. Whereas the non-treated kelp produced significantly large chunks of biochar, which hindered the continuous operation of pyrolysis, the kelp treated with sulfuric acid did not produce aggregated large particles of biochar, thereby offering a means of developing reliable continuous pyrolysis processes.

© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

# 1. Introduction

Macroalgae are promising biomass resources because of their rapid growth, less competition with foods, and cultivation in the sea. Brown algae, *Saccharina japonica* (*S. japonica*), used in this study is composed of alginate, laminarin, fucoidan, mannitol, and other inorganic elements [1]. Because other biomass sources, such as corn, sugarcane, wood, and grass, have been fermented into bioethanol and other bioalcohols, there have also been efforts to ferment macroalgae into bioalcohols [2,3]. Although bioalcohol production, one of the frequently used biofuel processes, can be selected for the macroalgae feedstocks, the smaller amount of fermentable sugars compared to cellulosic or carbohydrate types of biomass may hinder the use of macroalgae as a feedstock for bioalcohol production [1].

Under these circumstances, thermochemical conversions, including pyrolysis and hydrothermal liquefaction, have been sug-

E-mail address: jmha@kist.re.kr (J.-M. Ha).

gested to obtain hydrocarbon fuels from macroalgae [4], and thermochemical conversions of microalgae have been widely investigated in studies pertaining to microalgae-based biodiesel production [5–7]. As lignocellulosic biomass is processed [8], batch or fixed bed pyrolysis [9–12], continuous flow pyrolysis using a fluidized bed reactor or others [13–18], and batch hydrothermal liquefaction [19,20] have been assessed for the ability of these methods to produce bio-oils. The addition of a special treatment, such as a microwave treatment, was performed to valorize macroalgae-derived pyrolysis oils [4,12,21,22]. The kinetics of the combustion and pyrolysis of seaweeds was also studied in an effort to understand the thermal degradation characteristics [23–28].

In keeping with the research on producing pyrolysis oils using organic components in seaweeds, the production of the pyrolysis oils of *S. japonica* using a fluidized bed reactor was attempted, but rapidly growing biochar chunks were observed in the early stage of the process (see Fig. S1 in the supplementary information), which made it difficult to operate the process continuously. It was predicted that the robust char formed possibly because of the inorganic mineral-catalyzed gelation and then the carbonization of gel-like sticky organic polysaccharides, which was similar to observations of lignin pyrolysis [29]. To increase the pyrolysis oil

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>f</sup> Department of Chemical Engineering, Pukyong National University, Busan 608-739, Republic of Korea

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author at: Clean Energy Research Center, Korea Institute of Science and Technology, Seoul 136-791, Republic of Korea. Tel.: +82 2 9585837; fax: +82 2 9585209.

yield, the removal of the major organic components of macroalgae, including alginate, laminarin, and mannitol was avoided. Two pretreatment methods were selected: a sulfuric acid and a CaCl2 treatment. The sulfuric acid pretreatment of macroalgae was performed to remove a significant amount of the inorganic elements by exchanging metal cations with protons to convert the inorganic salts of alginates and fucoidan to acidic forms and thus to reduce the catalysis caused by these materials during the pyrolysis process. Because the inorganic elements do not contribute to the yields of macroalgae pyrolysis oils, the removal of these inorganic elements may improve the pyrolysis processability. A CaCl2 treatment of macroalgae has been used to extract valuable fucoidan [30] and soften the networked structures of macroalgae [31]. The relatively small component (5-20 wt%) fucoidan was removed to suppress the gelation of organic components. In addition, because fucoidan is a valuable chemical that is extracted from seaweeds. this process can simulate the valorization of fucoidan-extracted seaweeds by pyrolysis. The removal of significant amounts of metal elements was also predicted because fucoidan exists as metal salts [1].

# 2. Experimental section

# 2.1. Materials

Kelp (*S. japonica*) was collected at Wando, Korea. Kelp was sieved to  $600-1000~\mu m$  and dried at  $60~^{\circ}C$  for 24 h prior to use. Calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>, anhydrous, 95.0%) was purchased from Wako (Osaka, Japan). Sulfuric acid (98.8%), p-mannitol, sodium alginate, laminarin (*Laminaria digitata*), fucoidan (*Fucus vesiculosus*), and tetrahydrofuran were purchased from Aldrich (Milwaukee, WI, USA). Deionized water (DI water,  $18.2~M\Omega~cm$ ) was prepared using an aquaMAX Ultra 370 water purification system (YL Instruments, Seoul, Korea).

# 2.2. Pretreatment of the kelp

Kelp was processed with (i) a  $CaCl_2$  treatment (fucoidan removal) and (ii) a sulfuric acid pretreatment. (i) Fucoidan removal was performed by stirring the sieved kelp powder (420 g, 600–1000  $\mu$ m) mixed with an aqueous calcium chloride solution (1 wt%  $CaCl_2$ , 7 L) twice for 20 min each. The mixture was then filtered, washed with DI water, dried at 105 °C for 24 h, and stored in a desiccator (KelpF) [30]. (ii) The acid pretreatment was performed by stirring the sieved kelp powder (700 g, 600–1000  $\mu$ m) mixed with an aqueous sulfuric acid (4 wt%  $H_2SO_4$ , 7 L) solution for 30 min. This mixture was then filtered and washed with DI water to achieve a pH of 5.5. The washed product was further dried in air at 105 °C for 16 h and stored in a desiccator (KelpA).

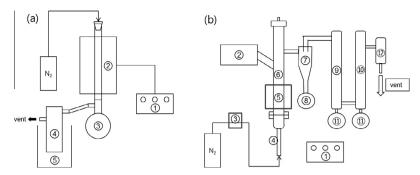
# 2.3. Pyrolysis

Pyrolysis of the kelp was performed using batch and continuous reactors (Fig. 1). When the fixed-bed-type batch reactor (quarts, ID = 2.4 cm) was used (Fig. 1(a)), each run processed 40 g of kelp powder pre-dried in air at 105 °C. The reaction was processed under an N<sub>2</sub> flow (0.5 L/min) at 470 °C for 10 min. The pyrolysis oil was collected at the first (25 °C) and second condensers (0 °C). The continuous flow pyrolysis reaction was performed using a fluidized bed reactor (Fig. 1(b)). Pre-sieved kelp powder (600–1000  $\mu$ m) was dried in air at 105 °C and conveyed using a screw-type solid feeder at a rate of 150 g/h to a reactor filled with alumina particles (260  $\mu$ m). The N<sub>2</sub> carrier gas flow rate was fixed at 45.37 L/min (at 470 °C). The residence time of the kelp particles in the reactor was held to 2 s or shorter. The formed char particles

were collected at the cyclone, and the volatile products were collected using two chilled condensers (first condenser at 22 °C; second condenser at -10 °C).

# 2.4. Characterization of kelp powders and pyrolysis oils

For all the GC/MS analyses, the concentrations of the identified materials were determined using the relative peak areas [28,32]. The prepared kelp powder was observed by means of Py-GC/MS, which was performed using an Agilent 6890 GC equipped with a CDS pyroprobe 5000 and a 5973 mass selective detector. The pyroprobe was operated at a ramping rate of 450 °C/s to reach a temperature of 450 °C and hold it there for 20 s; it was thermally protected by the surrounding air at 270 °C. GC/MS was performed using a DB-1701 capillary column (60 m  $\times$  0.25 mm  $\times$  0.25  $\mu$ m) [33]. The pyrolysis oil was observed using a GC/MS (the Agilent Technologies 7890A GC system with a HP-5MS column.  $60 \,\mathrm{m} \times$  $0.25 \text{ mm} \times 0.25 \mu\text{m}$ ). Prior to the GC/MS analysis, the pyrolysis oil was mixed with tetrahydrofuran to form a 50% w/w mixture, after which a biphasic mixture composed of a transparent bottom and dark top layer formed, whose GC/MS results were separately obtained. The amount of volatile compounds in the kelp powder was measured by means of a proximate analysis under an air flow using a TGA SDT Q600 instrument (TA Instruments). The kelp powder ( $\sim$ 15 mg) was heated to 120 °C at a ramping rate of 10 °C/min and kept at 120 °C for 30 min, heated to 575 °C at 10 °C/min and kept at 575 °C for 30 min, and then heated to 800 °C at 10 °C/min and kept at 800 °C for 30 min. The weight losses up to 120 and 575 °C were attributed to water and volatile compounds, respectively. The remaining weight was assigned as ash. Thermogravimetry of the kelp powders, oils, and other compounds was performed under an N<sub>2</sub> flow using a TGA SDT Q600 instrument (TA Instruments). The compositions of C, H, N, and S in the kelp powders and oils were measured using a Flash 2000 series CHNSO analyzer (Thermo Scientific, USA). The oxygen content was measured using a Fisons-EA-1108 (Thermo Scientific, USA). The inorganic compositions of the kelp powders and oils were measured using inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES; Polyscan-61E, Thermo Electron Corp., Winsford, Cheshire, UK). To measure the solid contents in the pyrolysis oils, the oil (5 g) was dissolved in a mixture of dichloromethane and methanol (50% w/w, 50 g), which was stirred for 30 min. The resulting mixture was filtered using a paper filter (0.45 μm) and dried in air at 60 °C for 24 h prior to the measurement of the remaining weight. The total acid number (TAN) of the oil was measured by stirring the oil (0.05 g) dissolved in acetone (20 mL) for 10 min. Three drops of phenolphthalein (0.1 g) dissolved in methanol (20 mL) were added to the oil/acetone solution, which was titrated with 0.1 M KOH, and the TAN was determined as TAN (mmol KOH/g) = (KOH volume, mL) × (0.1 mmol/mL KOH)/(weight of oil, g). The thermogravimetry results for the kelp and pyrolysis oil were obtained using the TGA SDT Q600 instrument; this process was performed in an  $N_2$  flow by heating  $\sim$ 15 mg of the sample to 1000 °C at a ramping rate of 20 °C/min. FT-IR was performed on the kelp powder using a Nicolet iS10 FT-IR system. The Karl Fischer titration method was used to measure the water content of the pyrolysis oil (3 mg) using a Karl Fischer Moisture Titrator MKC-520 with the addition of HYDRANAL-Coulomat AG-H. For the bi- or multi-phasic oil mixture, each phase was separately observed. The viscosity of the pyrolysis oil was measured at 25 °C using an AR2000 (TA Instruments, New Castle, DE, USA) cone and plate stress control type rotational rheometer. The shear rate was  $0.1-1000 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The density of the pyrolysis oil, prepared by stirring for 30 min, was measured using a pycnometer (Lenz Laborglas, Wertheim, Germany). The heating values of the pyrolysis oils were determined using the DuLong equation [34]: HHV (higher heating value, MJ/kg) =  $33.742 \times [C] +$  $143.905 \times ([H] - [O]/8) + 9.396 \times [S]$ , where [C], [H], [O], and [S]



**Fig. 1.** Schemes of (a) batch (1: controller, 2: reactor, 3: first condenser, 4: second condenser, 5: ice bath) and (b) continuous pyrolysis reactors (1: controller, 2: screw feeder, 3: MFC, 4: air heater, 5: ceramic heater, 6: reactor, 7: cyclone, 8: char collector, 9: first condenser, 10: second condenser, 11: oil collector, 12: filter).

are the mass fractions as measured through elemental analysis [19,20,35–39].

# 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Screening pretreatment methods

To find the optimum pretreatment methods, thermogravimetry (TG) was performed on the kelp powders (Figs. 2 and S2). The pretreatment methods that exhibited less ash and more weight loss up to 500 °C were selected to produce less char and more pyrolysis oil. Kelp powders treated with an aqueous sodium hydroxide (4 wt% NaOH) solution, an aqueous ammonia (4 wt% NH<sub>3</sub>) solution, an aqueous sulfuric acid (4 wt% H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) solution, and DI water were observed with TG, and the lowest amount of ash formed after the sulfuric acid treatment (Fig. 2(a)). In comparison with the sulfuric acid treatment method, kelp powder treated with the aqueous NaOH and NH<sub>3</sub> solutions became a sticky gel-like material that could not be used in the pyrolysis reactor. After observing the effects of an acid treatment on the increase in the volatile compounds, a pretreatment using an aqueous hydrochloric acid (HCl) solution was also attempted, but there was not a significant difference between the H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and the HCl treatment methods (Fig. 2(b)). The concentration of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> was also decreased from 4 to 1 and 0.4 wt%, but the amount of remaining ash increased with the more diluted H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution (Fig. 2(c)). An extension of the treatment time from 1 to 24 h and an increase in the reaction temperature from 25 to 75 °C were attempted, but they did not exhibit significantly different TG behavior (Figs. 2(d) and (e)). Washing the kelp powder pretreated with sulfuric acid was attempted using DI water and ethanol, and the kelp powder washed in this manner produced the least ash (Fig. 2(f)). These screening attempts determined the optimum pretreatment conditions, as described in Section 2.2. The pretreatment of kelp powder using strong acids may damage the structure of carbohydrates, as reported for cellulose, although the distortion of the kelp structure by acids was not clearly observed because kelp powder was amorphous and its morphology did not exhibit a significant difference [40]. In addition to the sulfuric acid pretreatment method, the CaCl<sub>2</sub> treatment method was utilized, which has been reported as useful for extracting the valuable fucoidan from the macroalgae [41]. Via the CaCl2-treatment, the softening of the macroalgae structure was expected because of the extraction of fucoidan.

# 3.2. Characterization of pretreated kelp

The non-treated (Kelp) and pretreated kelp powders (KelpF and KelpA) were characterized by proximate and elemental analyses to determine the properties of these feedstocks. The proximate

analysis indicated that the acid pretreatment significantly reduced the amount of ash, mostly minerals, while also increasing the amount of volatile organic compounds (KelpA, Table 1). Because of the possible removal of inorganic elements, the amount of carbon composition of KelpA also increased. The aqueous CaCl<sub>2</sub> treatment to remove fucoidan also increased the amount of carbon composition because the sulfuric acid functionality of fucoidan exists as a salt of metals (KelpF, Table 1) [1]. The removal of inorganic elements was also confirmed with elemental analysis, which exhibited the decreasing concentrations of Na, Mg, and K for both KelpF and KelpA (Table 1). In spite of the pretreatment, the initial HHVs of the kelp feedstocks were as low as 12.1–14.4 MJ/kg, regardless of pretreatment.

Based on these properties, the thermal degradation of the non-treated and pretreated kelp powders was observed using thermogravimetry, exhibiting different behaviors depending on the pretreatment method (Fig. 3). KelpA produced greater amounts of volatile compounds up to 600 °C (Fig. 3(a)) because it contained less ash-producing inorganic elements, as listed in Table 1. Based on the thermogravimetry results of the commercially available single components (Fig. 3(b)), the degradation at 200-400 °C can be attributed to the degradation of alginate, laminarin, fucoidan, and mannitol. In comparison with the thermal degradation of commercially available fucoidan and laboratory-prepared kelp-extracted fucoidan, both of which exhibit degradation at 600-800 °C, it was confirmed that fucoidan was extracted by the CaCl2-treatment (Figs. 3(a) and (c)). The extraction of fucoidan during the CaCl<sub>2</sub> pretreatment of the kelp powder was also confirmed by means of the FT-IR of the extracted products, exhibiting S=0 (1225 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and C-O-S (830 cm<sup>-1</sup>) absorption peaks, which were observed for the commercially available fucoidan powders (Fig. S3).

Py–GC/MS of the treated and non-treated kelp was conducted to identify the volatile compounds that may be collected as pyrolysis oil components (Fig. S3 and Table S1). When heated to 450 °C, no significant difference in the product distribution was observed between Kelp, KelpF, and KelpA. Most products, including isosorbide, furan derivatives, hydroxyl propanone, and allose, were obtained from the carbohydrates in macroalgae. Long-chain hydrocarbons, including tetradecanoic acid, hexadecanoic acid, and octadecanoic acid, were observed, which had to be obtained from the lipids in the macroalgae.

# 3.3. Batch pyrolysis

The pyrolysis oils of Kelp, KelpF, and KelpA were obtained using the fixed-bed-type batch system depicted in Fig. 1(a). Two condensers collected the oils at the highest yield (37.9%) when the non-treated kelp was processed. Although slightly less, KelpF and KelpA produced 28.6% and 33.3% yields, respectively. When the pyrolysis oil was collected at two subsequent condensers, the

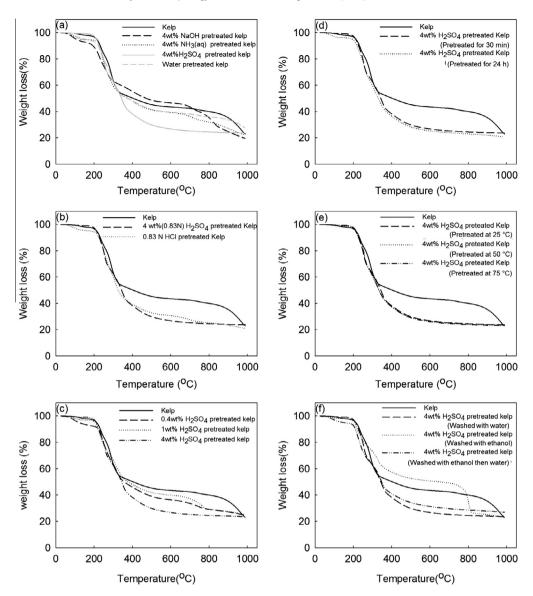


Fig. 2. Thermogravimetry results of kelp powder depending on the pretreatment conditions: (a) solvent, (b) acid, (c) acid concentration, (d) pretreatment time, (e) pretreatment temperature, and (f) washing solvent.

**Table 1**Properties of kelp powders.<sup>a</sup>

	Kelp (S. japonica)	KelpF	KelpA
Proximate analysis (wt%)			
Moisture	7.4	1.6	6.7
Volatile	74.3	83.1	90.0
Ash	18.3	15.4	3.3
CHNSO analysis (wt%)			
C	34.7	39.4	44.3
Н	5.5	5.3	5.6
N	1	1.5	1.6
S	<0.3	< 0.3	< 0.3
0	41.6	39.6	47.6
O/C (mol/mol)	0.90	0.75	0.81
H/C (mol/mol)	1.90	1.61	1.52
Apparent density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	0.56	0.53	0.56
HHV (MJ/kg)	12.1	13.8	14.4
Inorganic elements (ppm)			
Na	High	871	1778
Mg	3584	695	522
K	High	1737	4587
Ca	High	High	High

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Calculated with dry basis.

densities of the condensed oils were not significantly different, with the result showing 1.02-1.13 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (Table 2). A high water content (34.7-82.4 wt%) was measured for all of the kelp oils. It must be noted that the oils obtained from the CaCl2- and the acid-treated kelp powders (KelpF and KelpA) contained very high amounts of water (64.8-82.4 wt%). It was observed that the oil (collected at the first condenser from the kelp) with the lowest amount of water exhibited the highest density, whereas the others had densities very close to that of water. All of the oils collected at the condensers underwent phase separation to form dark and transparent phases with ambiguous interfaces (Fig. S4). This phenomenon has been reported for lignocellulose pyrolysis oils [42]. Whereas the kelp oil collected at the first condenser exhibited dark and transparent phases on the top and bottom layers, respectively, the other oils exhibited a dark phase on the bottom layer and a transparent phase on the top layer. The solid contents suspended in the oils were 0.030-0.290 wt% for all oils. When the total acidity was measured with KOH titration, the TANs of the oils were 33-129, which was slightly lower than the TANs reported for lignocellulose pyrolysis oils (84-166) [43].

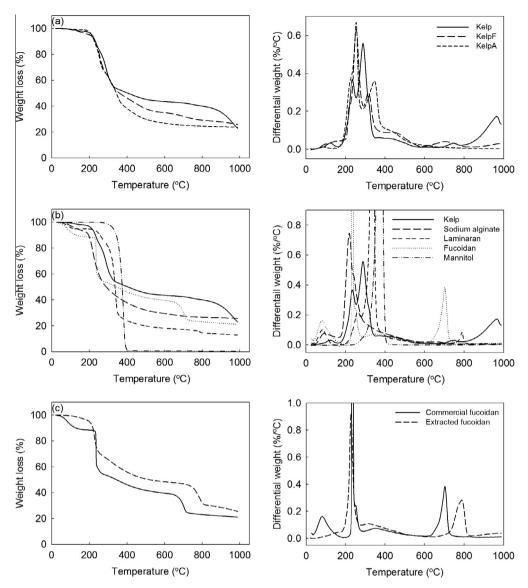


Fig. 3. Thermogravimetry (left) and differential thermogravimetry results (right) of (a) kelp powders, (b) the major components of kelp, and (c) fucoidan.

**Table 2** Properties of pyrolysis oils.

	Kelp (S. japonica) oil	KelpF oil	KelpA oil
Yield (%)			
First condenser	9.1	5.6	6.4
Second condenser	28.8	23.0	26.9
Total	37.9	28.6	33.3
Density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )			
First condenser	1.13	1.03	1.03
Second condenser	1.07	1.02	1.04
Water content (wt%)			
First condenser	34.7	73.0	64.8
Second condenser	82.4	82.4	79.3
Solid content (wt%)			
First condenser	0.133	0.290	0.185
Second condenser	0.035	0.033	0.030
TAN (mg KOH/g)			
First condenser (top layer)	43	73	129
First condenser (bottom layer)	56	62	101
Second condenser (top layer)	38	51	73
Second condenser (bottom layer)	45	33	90

The elemental compositions of the pyrolysis oils did not significantly depend on the pretreatment method, indicating that the pretreatment method did not affect the quality of the pyrolysis oils (Table 3). The difference in the compositions was distinct between the dark and the transparent oils. The carbon composition was large for the dark oils, at 60.2-72.2 wt%, O/C = 0.16-0.35 (mol/mol), and H/C = 1.4-1.7 (mol/mol). In comparison, the transparent oils exhibited a carbon composition of 5.5-25.2 wt%, O/C = 1.5-7.0 (mol/mol), and H/C = 4.5-20 (mol/mol). These observations indicate that the dark oils were hydrocarbon-rich and that the transparent oils were water-rich. The hydrocarbon-rich dark oils exhibited HHVs of 30.0-36.1 MJ/kg, which are much larger than those of the feedstocks and lignocellulosic pyrolysis oils and similar to those of fossil fuels [43].

The viscosities of the pyrolysis oils, measured using a cone-and-plate viscometer, exhibited shear-thinning non-Newtonian behavior at low shear rates, as reported for lignocellulose pyrolysis oils (Fig. 4) [23,44]. All of the pyrolysis oils in this study became Newtonian at a shear rate larger than  $1-100 \, \text{s}^{-1}$ . Compared to the non-treated kelp oil ( $10^{-2}-1 \, \text{Pa s}$ ), both the KelpF and KelpA oils exhibited lower viscosities ( $6 \times 10^{-3}-2 \times 10^{-1} \, \text{Pa s}$  for the KelpF oil and  $3 \times 10^{-3}-10^{-1} \, \text{Pa s}$  for the KelpA oil). According to the

**Table 3** Elemental compositions of pyrolysis oils.

Oil	Elemental composition (wt%)					O/C (mol/mol)	H/C (mol/mol)	HHV (MJ/kg)	
	С	Н	N	S	0	total			
Kelp									
First condenser (top layer)	69.2	8.3	3.7	<0.3	15.4	96.6	0.17	1.4	35.0
First condenser (bottom layer)	25.2	9.4	2.6	<0.3	49.9	87.1	1.5	4.5	14.3
Second condenser (top layer)	12.0	10.5	1.1	<0.3	56.1	79.7	3.5	10	10.4
Second condenser (bottom layer)	72.2	8.3	3.9	<0.3	15.3	99.7	0.16	1.4	36.1
KelpF									
First condenser (top layer)	10.5	10.6	2.7	< 0.3	53.6	77.4	3.8	12	10.6
First condenser (bottom layer)	60.2	8.8	5.3	< 0.3	28.2	102.5	0.35	1.7	30.0
Second condenser (top layer)	5.5	10.9	1.6	< 0.3	51.1	69.1	7.0	24	10.1
Second condenser (bottom layer)	66.3	8.7	4.8	<0.3	18.0	97.8	0.20	1.6	34.2
KelpA									
First condenser (top layer)	19.0	9.8	2.5	< 0.3	53.1	84.4	2.1	6.2	12.2
First condenser (bottom layer)	68.2	8.6	3.0	< 0.3	20.3	100.1	0.22	1.5	34.1
Second condenser (top layer)	6.5	10.7	1.1	< 0.3	53.8	72.1	6.2	20	9.40
Second condenser (bottom layer)	62.1	8.6	3.8	< 0.3	24.0	98.5	0.29	1.7	31.2

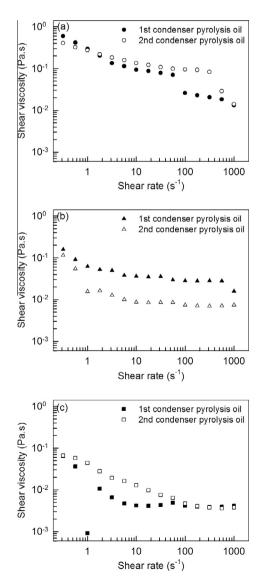
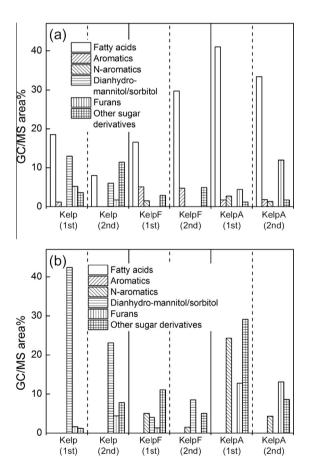


Fig. 4. Viscosities of the pyrolysis oils obtained from (a) Kelp, (b) KelpF, and (c) KelpA.

viscosities (Fig. 4) and the corresponding water contents (Table 3), the water content or the organic compounds' concentration did not seem to determine the viscosities, but the chemical treatment



**Fig. 5.** GC/MS results of (a) the top and (b) bottom layers of pyrolysis oils dissolved in tetrahydrofuran. (Only reliable compounds are depicted.)

methods adjusted the chemical structures of the pyrolysis oils. It was also observed that the KelpA oil exhibited lower viscosity compared to the KelpF oil, which may be attributed to the production of small kelp fragments during the acid treatment compared to the CaCl<sub>2</sub> treatment. Because the water contents are similar for the pyrolysis oils, except for the kelp oil collected in the first condenser, a low level of viscosity, lower than that of lignocellulosic pyrolysis oils, may improve the oil's transportation [43].

The produced Kelp, KelpF, and KelpA pyrolysis oils were dissolved in tetrahydrofuran (50% w/w) and further analyzed with

GC/MS to identify the oil components (Table S2, Figs. 5 and S5). After the addition of tetrahydrofuran to the oils, dark and transparent oil phases were found on the top and bottom layers, respectively, regardless of the kelp feedstock used. The dark oils on the top layers contained more hydrophobic compounds, including fatty acids and aromatic compounds, and the transparent oils on the bottom layers contained more hydrophilic compounds, including dianhydromannitol, dianhydrosorbitol, and sugar derivatives. The CaCl<sub>2</sub> and sulfuric acid treatments increased the amounts of fatty acids and decreased the sugar derivatives in the dark oils (top layers). In the transparent oils (bottom layers), the CaCl<sub>2</sub> and sulfuric acid treatments decreased the amounts of anhydrous dimers of mannitol and sorbitol. The sulfuric acid treatment increased the amounts of N-heteroaromatic compounds (pyridinol and pyrrolidinone) and furan derivatives.

When the pyrolysis oils were produced in the fixed-bed-type batch reactor, remaining biochar was observed (Fig. S6), indicating that the char from the non-treated kelp powder became bulky, whereas those from KelpF and KelpA contained smaller particles. These observations must be attributed to the pretreatment of the kelp, which softened the structures and removed the catalytic minerals. The elemental composition of the biochar was measured (Table S3), finding lower concentrations of minerals in KelpF and KelpA biochar compared to the non-treated kelp biochar. Thus, the calculated HHV of KelpA biochar was 27.6 MJ/kg, which was much higher than those of the non-treated Kelp and KelpF. The high HHV of the KelpA biochar suggests the possibility of using kelp biochar as a biocoal capable of producing less ash.

# 3.4. Continuous fluidized bed reaction

Based on observations of the oils produced through the batch reaction, the continuous fluidized bed reactor was operated using Kelp and KelpA. When the non-treated kelp was supplied to the reactor, a large amount of cylindrical char quickly formed in the middle of the fluidization bed (Fig. S1), which seriously suppressed its continuous operation, as discussed in the introduction section. KelpA, however, did not produce large chunks of char, only producing small char particles, which were collected at the cyclone. These observations indicate that the acid-treated kelp powder has better processability in the continuous fluidization bed reactor.

As discussed in the introduction section and observed in Figs. S1 and S6, the pyrolysis of macroalgae is difficult, possibly on account of polymerization or carbonization during the pyrolysis by existing inorganic minerals or polysaccharides, as reported in the literature [6]. In this study, inorganic elements were removed using a sulfuric acid pre-treatment to produce pyrolysis oil efficiently because inorganic elements, not sources for oils, may catalyze the polymerization of organic compounds during the pyrolysis process [6].

## 4. Conclusions

Considering rapidly growing biochar in continuous fluidization bed reactors, a pretreatment of macroalgae feedstocks was performed in an effort to reduce the formation of process-hindering large chunks of biochar in the middle of the fluidization bed. From observation of the pyrolysis oils and the continuous reactor, the sulfuric acid pretreatment methods (i) improved the operation of continuous pyrolysis process of kelp and (ii) suppressed the formation of biochar. The suppressed formation of biochar was clearly observed when the sulfuric-acid-treated kelp powder was used as a feedstock because the inorganic elements, which may catalyze the growth of biochar, in the kelp powder were removed by the acid treatment. Sulfuric acid pretreatment also increased the fatty acid composition in the pyrolysis oil, with less formation of bulky

char. The better processability of the kelp pretreated with sulfuric acid was attributed to the removal of catalytic minerals and the softening of the kelp structure.

## Acknowledgement

This work was financially supported by the Korean Ministry of Oceans and Fisheries (Contact No. 20131039449).

# Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.enconman.2014.04.094.

#### References

- [1] Anastasakis K, Ross AB, Jones JM. Pyrolysis behaviour of the main carbohydrates of brown macro-algae. Fuel 2011;90:598–607.
- [2] John RP, Anisha GS, Nampoothiri KM, Pandey A. Micro and macroalgal biomass: a renewable source for bioethanol. Bioresour Technol 2011;102:186–93.
- [3] Wargacki AJ, Leonard E, Win MN, Regitsky DD, Santos CNS, Kim PB, et al. An engineered microbial platform for direct biofuel production from brown macroalgae. Science 2012;335:308–13.
- [4] Wang S, Wang Q, Jiang X, Han X, Ji H. Compositional analysis of bio-oil derived from pyrolysis of seaweed. Energy Convers Manage 2013;68:273–80.
- [5] Li Y, Horsman M, Wu N, Lan CQ, Dubois-Calero N. Biofuels from microalgae. Biotechnol Prog 2008;24:815–20.
- [6] Miao X, Wu Q, Yang C. Fast pyrolysis of microalgae to produce renewable fuels. J Anal Appl Pyrolysis 2004;71:855–63.
- [7] Budarin V, Ross AB, Biller P, Riley R, Clark JH, Jones JM, et al. Microalgae biorefinery concept based on hydrothermal microwave pyrolysis. Green Chem 2012;14:3251-4
- [8] Jourabchi SA, Gan S, Ng HK. Pyrolysis of Jatropha curcas pressed cake for bio-oil production in a fixed-bed system. Energy Convers Manage 2014;78:518–26.
- [9] Morgan PJ, Smith K. Potentiality of seaweed as a resource: analysis of the pyrolysis products of *Fucus serratus*. Analyst 1978;103:1053–60.
- [10] Bae YJ, Ryu C, Jeon J-K, Park J, Suh DJ, Suh Y-W, et al. The characteristics of biooil produced from the pyrolysis of three marine macroalgae. Bioresour Technol 2011;102:3512–20.
- [11] Hu Z, Zheng Y, Yan F, Xiao B, Liu S. Bio-oil production through pyrolysis of blue-green algae blooms (BGAB): product distribution and bio-oil characterization. Energy 2013;52:119-25.
- [12] Li L, Ma X, Xu Q, Hu Z. Influence of microwave power, metal oxides and metal salts on the pyrolysis of algae. Bioresour Technol 2013;142:469–74.
- [13] Trinh TN, Jensen PA, Dam-Johansen K, Knudsen NO, Sørensen HR, Hvilsted S. Comparison of lignin, macroalgae, wood, and straw fast pyrolysis. Energy Fuels 2013;27:1399–409.
- [14] Yanik J, Stahl R, Troeger N, Sinag A. Pyrolysis of algal biomass. J Anal Appl Pyrolysis 2013;103:134–41.
- [15] Zhao H, Yan HX, Liu M, Sun BB, Zhang Y, Dong SS, et al. Production of bio-oil from fast pyrolysis of macroalgae Enteromorpha prolifera powder in a free-fall reactor. Energy Sour, Part A: Recov Util Environ Eff 2013;35:859-67.
- [16] Abnisa F, Arami-Niya A, Wan Daud WMA, Sahu JN, Noor IM. Utilization of oil palm tree residues to produce bio-oil and bio-char via pyrolysis. Energy Convers Manage 2013;76:1073–82.
- [17] Maguyon MCC, Capareda SC. Evaluating the effects of temperature on pressurized pyrolysis of *Nannochloropsis oculata* based on products yields and characteristics. Energy Convers Manage 2013;76:764–73.
- [18] Wang S, Jiang XM, Wang Q, Han XX, Ji HS. Experiment and grey relational analysis of seaweed particle combustion in a fluidized bed. Energy Convers Manage 2013;66:115–20.
- [19] Zhou D, Zhang L, Zhang S, Fu H, Chen J. Hydrothermal liquefaction of macroalgae Enteromorpha prolifera to bio-oil. Energy Fuels 2010;24:4054–61.
- [20] Anastasakis K, Ross AB. Hydrothermal liquefaction of the brown macro-alga Laminaria Saccharina: effect of reaction conditions on product distribution and composition. Bioresour Technol 2011;102:4876–83.
- [21] Budarin VL, Zhao Y, Gronnow MJ, Shuttleworth PS, Breeden SW, Macquarrie DJ, et al. Microwave-mediated pyrolysis of macro-algae. Green Chem 2011;13:2330–3.
- [22] Biller P, Friedman C, Ross AB. Hydrothermal microwave processing of microalgae as a pre-treatment and extraction technique for bio-fuels and bio-products. Bioresour Technol 2013;136:188–95.
- [23] Lu Q, Li W-Z, Zhu X-F. Overview of fuel properties of biomass fast pyrolysis oils. Energy Convers Manage 2009;50:1376–83.
- [24] Wang S, Jiang XM, Wang N, Yu LJ, Li Z, He PM. Research on pyrolysis characteristics of seaweed. Energy Fuels 2007;21:3723–9.

- [25] Wang S, Jiang XM, Han XX, Liu JG. Combustion characteristics of seaweed biomass. 1. Combustion characteristics of *Enteromorpha clathrata* and *Sargassum natans*. Energy Fuels 2009;23:5173–8.
- [26] Ye NH, Li DM, Chen LM, Zhang XW, Xu D. Comparative studies of the pyrolytic and kinetic characteristics of maize straw and the seaweed *Ulva pertusa*. PLoS One 2010:5:6.
- [27] Kim S-S, Ly HV, Choi G-H, Kim J, Woo HC. Pyrolysis characteristics and kinetics of the alga *Saccharina japonica*. Bioresour Technol 2012;123:445–51.
- [28] Kim S-S, Ly HV, Kim J, Choi JH, Woo HC. Thermogravimetric characteristics and pyrolysis kinetics of *Alga Sagarssum* sp. biomass. Bioresour Technol 2013:139:242–8.
- [29] Nowakowski DJ, Bridgwater AV, Elliott DC, Meier D, de Wild P. Lignin fast pyrolysis: results from an international collaboration. J Anal Appl Pyrolysis 2010:88:53–72.
- [30] Whyte JNC, Englar JR, Canada E, Fisheries, Service M. Alginate degradation in situ accompanying thermal drying of the marine algae *Nereocystis Luetkeana* and *Macrocystis Integrifolia*. Environ Canada, Fish Mar Serv 1976.
- [31] Park K, Cho E, In M-J, Kim D, Chae H. Physicochemical properties and bioactivity of brown seaweed fucoidan prepared by ultra high pressure-assisted enzyme treatment. Korean J Chem Eng 2012;29:221–7.
- [32] Jacobson K, Maheria KC, Kumar Dalai A. Bio-oil valorization: a review. Renew Sust Energy Rev 2013;23:91–106.
- [33] Ross AB, Jones JM, Kubacki ML, Bridgeman T. Classification of macroalgae as fuel and its thermochemical behaviour. Bioresour Technol 2008;99:6494–504.
- [34] Cheng J. Biomass to renewable energy processes. CRC Press/Taylor & Francis; 2010.
- [35] Mørup AJ, Christensen PR, Aarup DF, Dithmer L, Mamakhel A, Glasius M, et al. Hydrothermal liquefaction of dried distillers grains with solubles: a reaction temperature study. Energy Fuels 2012;26:5944–53.

- [36] Long J, Li X, Guo B, Wang F, Yu Y, Wang L. Simultaneous delignification and selective catalytic transformation of agricultural lignocellulose in cooperative ionic liquid pairs. Green Chem 2012;14:1935–41.
- [37] Beauchet R, Monteil-Rivera F, Lavoie JM. Conversion of lignin to aromatic-based chemicals (ι-chems) and biofuels (ι-fuels). Bioresour Technol 2012;121:328–34.
- [38] Adams JMM, Ross AB, Anastasakis K, Hodgson EM, Gallagher JA, Jones JM, et al. Seasonal variation in the chemical composition of the bioenergy feedstock Laminaria digitata for thermochemical conversion. Bioresour Technol 2011:102:226–34.
- [39] Brand S, Susanti RF, Kim SK, Lee H-S, Kim J, Sang B-I. Supercritical ethanol as an enhanced medium for lignocellulosic biomass liquefaction: influence of physical process parameters. Energy 2013;59:173–82.
- [40] Lee H-J, Sanyoto B, Choi J-W, Ha J-M, Suh D, Lee K-Y. Effects of lignin on the ionic-liquid assisted catalytic hydrolysis of cellulose: chemical inhibition by lignin. Cellulose 2013;20:2349–58.
- [41] Ale M, Mikkelsen J, Meyer A. Designed optimization of a single-step extraction of fucose-containing sulfated polysaccharides from *Sargassum* sp. J Appl Phycol 2012;24:715–23.
- [42] Elliott DC, Hart TR, Neuenschwander GG, Rotness LJ, Olarte MV, Zacher AH, et al. Catalytic hydroprocessing of fast pyrolysis bio-oil from pine sawdust. Energy Fuels 2012;26:3891–6.
- [43] Elliott DC, Oasmaa A, Preto F, Meier D, Bridgwater AV. Results of the IEA round robin on viscosity and stability of fast pyrolysis bio-oils. Energy Fuels 2012;26:3769–76.
- [44] Ingram L, Mohan D, Bricka M, Steele P, Strobel D, Crocker D, et al. Pyrolysis of wood and bark in an auger reactor: physical properties and chemical analysis of the produced bio-oils. Energy Fuels 2007;22:614–25.